EDWARDS CURVE POINTS COUNTING METHOD AND SUPERSINGULAR EDWARDS AND MONTGOMERY CURVES III

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Ruslan Skuratovskii[1]
r.skuratovskii@kpi.ua, ruslan@ubicyb.kiev.ua
National Technical University of Ukraine "KPI im. Igor Sikorsky ", Institute of Cybernetics of NASU.

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ABSTRACT

We consider algebraic affine and projective curves of Edwards [3, 9] over the finite field F_{p^n}. It is known that many modern cryptosystems [11] can be naturally transformed into elliptic curves [5]. We research Edwards algebraic curves over a finite field, which are one of the most promising supports of sets of points which are used for fast group operations [1]. We construct a new method for counting the order of an Edwards curve over a finite field. It should be noted that this method can be applied to the order of elliptic curves due to the birational equivalence between elliptic curves and Edwards curves.

We not only find a specific set of coefficients with corresponding field characteristics for which these curves are supersingular, but we additionally find a general formula by which one can determine whether a curve $E_d[\mathbb{F}_p]$ is supersingular over this field or not.

The method we have proposed has much less complexity $O\left(p\log_2^2 p\right)$ at not large values p in comparison with the best Schoof basic algorithm with complexity$O(log_2^8 p^n)$, as well as a variant of the Schoof algorithm that uses fast arithmetic, which has complexity $O(log_2^4 p^n)$, but works only for Elkis or Atkin primes.

The embedding degree of the supersingular curve of Edwards over $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ in a finite field is investigated and the field characteristic, where this degree is minimal, is found. A birational isomorphism between the Montgomery curve and the Edwards curve is also constructed. A one-to-one correspondence between the Edwards supersingular curves and Montgomery supersingular curves is established.

The criterion of supersingularity for Edwards curves is found over $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$.
Key words: finite field, elliptic curve, Edwards curve, group of points of an elliptic curve.
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1 Introduction

The task of finding the order of an algebraic curve over a finite field $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ is now very relevant and is at the center of many mathematical studies in connection with the use of groups of points of curves of genus 1 in cryptography. In our article, this problem is solved for the Edwards and Montgomery curves.

The criterion of supersingularity of the Edwards curves is found over $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$. We additionally propose a method for counting the points from Edwards curves and elliptic curves in response to an earlier paper by Schoof [8].

We consider the algebraic affine and projective Edwards curves over a finite field. We not only find a specific set of coefficients with corresponding field characteristics for which these curves are supersingular, but we additionally find a general formula by which one can determine whether a curve $E_d[\mathbb{F}_p]$ is supersingular over this field or not.

Our algorithm has much less complexity for algebraic extensions with a large degree of finite fields. This is so because choosing sufficiently large values n, we obtain the value $O(log_2^8 p^n)$ is much larger than $O\left(p\log_2^2 p\right)$ for a fixed value p.

2 Main Result

The twisted Edwards curve with coefficients $a, d \in {F_p}^*$ is the curve $E_{a,d}$:

$$ax^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2,$$

where $ad(a-d) \neq 0$, $d \neq 1$, $p \neq 2$ and $a \neq d$. It should be noted that a twisted Edwards curve is called an Edwards curve when $a = 1$. We denote by E_d the Edwards curve with coefficient $d \in {F_p}^*$ which is defined as

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2,$$

over $\mathbb{F}_p$. The projective curve has form $F(x, y, z) = ax^2z^2 + y^2z^2 = z^4 + dx^2y^2$. The special points are the infinitely distant points $(1, 0, 0)$ and $(0, 1, 0)$ and therefore we find its singularities at infinity in the corresponding affine components $A^1 := az^2 + y^2z^2 = z^4 + dy^2$ and $A^2 := ax^2z^2 + z^2 = z^4 + dx^2$. These are simple singularities.

We describe the structure of the local ring at the point p_1 whose elements are quotients of functions with the form $F(x, y, z) = \frac{f(x,y,z)}{g(x,y,z)}$, where the denominator cannot take the value of 0 at the singular point p_1. In particular, we note that a local ring which has two singularities consists of functions with the denominators are not divisible by $(x-1)(y-1)$.

We denote by $\delta_{\mathrm{p}} = \dim {\overline{\mathcal{O}}_{\mathrm{p}}}/{\mathcal{O}_p}$, where $\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{p}}$ denotes the local ring at the singular point p which is generated by the relations of regular functions $\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{p}} = \left\{ \frac{f}{g} : \ (g, (x-1)(y-1)) = 1 \right\}$ and $\overline{\mathcal{O}}_{\mathrm{p}}$ denotes the whole closure of the local ring at the singular point p.

We find that $\delta_p = \dim {\overline{\mathcal{O}}_p}/{\mathcal{O}_p} = 1$ is the dimension of the factor as a vector space. Because the basis of extension ${\overline{\mathcal{O}}_p}/{\mathcal{O}_p}$ consists of just one element at each distinct point, we obtain that $\delta_p = 1$. We then calculate the genus of the curve according to Fulton [4]

$$\rho^*(C) = \rho_\alpha(C) - \sum_{p \in E} \delta_p = \ \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2} - \sum_{p \in E} \delta_p = 3 - 2 = 1,$$

where $\rho_\alpha(C)$ denotes the arithmetic genus of the curve C with parameter $n = \deg(C) = 4$. It should be noted that the supersingular points were discovered in [10]. Recall the curve has a genus of 1 and as such it is known to be isomorphic to a flat cubic curve, however, the curve is importantly not elliptic because of its singularity in the projective part.

Both the Edwards curve and the twisted Edwards curve are isomorphic to some affine part of the elliptic curve. The Edwards curve after normalization is precisely a curve in the Weierstrass normal form, which was proposed by Montgomery [1] and will be denoted by E_M.

Koblitz [5, 4] tells us that one can detect if a curve is supersingular using the search for the curve when that curve has the same number of points as its torsion curve. Also an elliptic curve E over F_q is called supersingular if for every finite extension F_{q^r} there are no points in the group $E(F_{q^r})$ of order p [17]. It is known [1] that the transition from an Edwards curve to the related torsion curve is determined by the reflection $(\overline{x}, \overline{y}) \mapsto (x, y) = \left(\overline{x}, \frac{1}{\overline{y}}\right)$.

We now recall an important result from Vinogradov [13] which will act as criterion for supersingularity.

Lemma 2.1 (Vinogradov [13])**.** *Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $p \in \mathbb{P}$. Then*

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} k^n \equiv \begin{cases} 0 \pmod p, & n \not| (p-1), \\ -1 \pmod p, & n | (p-1), \end{cases}$$

where $n|(p-1)$ denotes that n is divisible by $p-1$.

The *order of a curve* is precisely the number of its affine points with a neutral element, where the group operation is well defined. It is known that the order of $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2$ coincides with the order of the curve $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + d^{-1}x^2y^2$ over finite field F_p.

We will now strengthen an existing result given in [10]. We denote the *number of points with a neutral element of an affine Edwards* curve over the finite field $\mathbb{F}_p$ by $N_{d[p]}$ and the *number of points on the projective curve* over the same field by $\overline{N}_{d[p]}$.

Theorem 2.1. *If $p \equiv 3(\mathrm{mod}\ 4)$ is prime and the following condition of supersingularity*

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 d^j \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ p), \tag{1}$$

is true then the orders of the curves $x^2+y^2 = 1+dx^2y^2$ and $x^2+y^2 = 1+d^{-1}x^2y^2$ over F_p are equal to

$$N_{d[p]} = p+1,$$

when $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = -1$, and

$$N_{d[p]} = p-3,$$

when $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = 1$.

Proof. Consider the curve E_d:

$$x^2+y^2 = 1+dx^2y^2. \tag{2}$$

Transform it into the form $y^2(1-dx^2y^2) = 1-x^2$, then we express y^2 by applying a rational transformation which lead us to the curve $y^2 = \frac{1-x^2}{1-dx^2y^2}$. For analysis we transform it into the curve

$$y^2 = (x^2-1)(dx^2-1). \tag{3}$$

We denote the number of points from an affine Edwards curve over the finite field $\mathbb{F}_p$ by $M_{d[p]}$. This curve (3) has $M_{d[p]} = N_{d[p]} + \left(\frac{d}{p}\right) + 1$ points, which is precisely $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right)+1$ greater than the number of points of curve E_d. Note that $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right)$ denotes the Legendre Symbol. Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{2p-2}$ be the coefficients of the polynomial $a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{2p-2}x^{2p-2}$, which was obtained from $(x^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(dx^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$ after opening the brackets.
Thus, summing over all x yields

$$M_{d[p]} = \sum_{x=0}^{p-1} 1 + ((x^2-1)(dx^2-1))^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = p + \sum_{x=0}^{p-1} (x^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(dx^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv \sum_{x=0}^{p-1} (x^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(dx^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (\mathrm{mod}\ p).$$

By opening the brackets in $(x^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(dx^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$, we have $a_{2p-2} = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \cdot d^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv \left(\frac{d}{p}\right) (\mathrm{mod}\ p)$. So, using Lemma 2.1 we have

$$M_{d[p]} \equiv -\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) - a_{p-1} (\mathrm{mod}\ p). \tag{4}$$

We need to prove that $M_{d[p]} \equiv 1(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$ if $p \equiv 3(\mathrm{mod}\ 8)$ and $M_{d[p]} \equiv -1(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$ if $p \equiv 7(\mathrm{mod}\ 8)$. We therefore have to show that $M_{d[p]} \equiv -(\frac{d}{p}) - a_{p-1}(\mathrm{mod}\, p)$ for $p \equiv 3(\mathrm{mod}\, 4)$ if $\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 d^j \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\, p)$. If we prove that $a_{p-1} \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$, then it will follow from (3). Let us determine a_{p-1} according to Newton's binomial formula: a_{p-1} is equal to the coefficient at x^{p-1} in the polynomial, which is obtained as a product $(x^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(dx^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$. So, $a_{p-1} = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} d^j (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2$. Actually, the following equality holds:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} d^j (C^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j}_{\frac{p-1}{2}})(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}-(\frac{p-1}{2}-j)} \cdot d^j (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j} =$$
$$= (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} d^j C^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j}_{\frac{p-1}{2}} \cdot C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}} = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} d^j (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2.$$

Since $a_{p-1} = -\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 d^j$, then exact number of affine points on non supersingular curve is the following

$$M_{d[p]} \equiv -a_{2p-2} - a_{p-1} \equiv -\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) + \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 d^j (\mathrm{mod}\ p). \tag{5}$$

According to the condition of this theorem $a_{p-1} = 0$, therefore $M_{d[p]} \equiv -a_{2p-2}(\mathrm{mod} p)$. Consequently, in the case when $p \equiv 3(\mathrm{mod}\,4)$, where p is prime and $\sum\limits_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 d^j \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\, p)$, the curve E_d has $N_{d[p]} = p - \left(\frac{d}{p}\right) - \left(\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) + 1\right) = p - 1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right)$ affine points and a group of points of the curve completed by singular points has $p+1$ points.

Exact number of the points has upper bound $2p+1$ because for every $x \neq 0$ corresponds two valuations of y, but for $x = 0$ we have only one solution $y = 0$. Taking into account that $x \in F_p$ we have exactly p values of x. Also there are 4 pairs $(\pm 1, 0)$ and $(0, \pm 1)$ which are points of E_d thus $N_{d[p]} > 1$. Thus $N_{d[p]} = p + 1$. This completes the proof.

Corollary 2.1. *The orders of the curves $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + d^{-1}x^2y^2$ over F_p are equal to*

$$N_{d[p]} = p + 1 = \overline{N}_{d[p]},$$

when $(\frac{d}{p}) = -1$, and

$$N_{d[p]} = p - 3 = \overline{N}_{d[p]} - 4,$$

when $(\frac{d}{p}) = 1$ iff $p \equiv 3(\mathrm{mod}\ 4)$ is prime and $\sum\limits_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 d^j \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$.

Since all transformations in proof of Theorem 2.1 were equivalent transitions then we obtain the proof of equivalence of conditions.

Theorem 2.2. *If the coefficient $d = 2$ or $d = 2^{-1}$ and $p \equiv 3(\mathrm{mod}4)$ then $\sum\limits_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} d^j (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{d}})^2 \equiv 0\,(\mathrm{mod} p)$ and $\overline{N}_{d[p]} = p + 1$.*

When $p \equiv 3(\mathrm{mod}\ 4)$, we shall show that $\sum\limits_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} d^j (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{d}})^2 \equiv 0\,(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$. We multiply each binomial coefficient in this sum by $(\frac{p-1}{2})!$ to obtain after some algebraic manipulation $(\frac{p-1}{2})! C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \frac{(\frac{p-1}{2})(\frac{p-1}{2}-1)\cdots(\frac{p-1}{2}-j+1)(\frac{p-1}{2})!}{1\cdot 2\cdots j} =$
$= (\frac{p-1}{2})(\frac{p-1}{2}-1)\cdots(\frac{p-1}{2}-j+1)[(\frac{p-1}{2})(\frac{p-1}{2}-1)\cdots(j+1)]$.

After applying the congruence $(\frac{p-1}{2} - k)^2 \equiv (\frac{p-1}{2} + 1 + k)^2 (\mathrm{mod}\, p)$ with $0 \leq k \leq \frac{p-1}{2}$ to the multipliers in previous parentheses, we obtain $[(\frac{p-1}{2})(\frac{p-1}{2}-1)\cdots(j+1)]$. It yields

$$\Big(\frac{p-1}{2}\Big)\Big(\frac{p-1}{2}-1\Big)\cdots\Big(\frac{p-1}{2}-j+1\Big)\Big[\Big(\frac{p-1}{2}+1\Big)\cdots\Big(\frac{p-1}{2}+\frac{p-1}{2}-j\Big)\Big](-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j}.$$

Thus, as a result of squaring, we have:

$$\Big(\Big(\frac{p-1}{2}\Big)!\, C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}}\Big)^2 \equiv \Big(\frac{p-1}{2}-j+1\Big)^2\Big(\frac{p-1}{2}-j+2\Big)^2\cdots\Big(p-j-1\Big)^2 (\mathrm{mod}\ p). \tag{6}$$

It remains to prove that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 2^j \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$$

if $p \equiv 3(\mathrm{mod}\,4)$. Consider the auxillary polynomial $P(t) = (\frac{p-1}{2}!)^2 \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 t^j$. We are going to show that $P(2) = 0$ and therefore $a_{p-1} \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\, p)$. Using (6) it can be shown that $a_{p-1} = P(t) = (\frac{p-1}{2}!)^2 \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 t^j \equiv \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (k+1)^2(k+2)^2 ... (\frac{p-1}{2}+k)^2 t^k (\mathrm{mod}\ p)$ over F_p.

We replace d by t in (1) such that we can research a more generalised problem. It should be noted that $P(t) = \partial^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\Big(\partial^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big(Q(t)\,t^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big)t^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\Big)$ over F_p, where $Q(t) = t^{p-1} + ... + t + 1$ and $\partial^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$ denotes the $\frac{p-1}{2}$-th derivative by t, where t is new variable but not a coordinate of curve. Observe that $Q(t) = \frac{t^p-1}{t-1} \equiv \frac{(t-1)^p}{t-1} \equiv (t-1)^{p-1} (\mathrm{mod}\ p)$ and therefore the equality $P(t) = \Big(\big((t-1)^{p-1}t^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big)^{(\frac{p-1}{2})}t^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\Big)^{(\frac{p-1}{2})}$ holds over F_p.

In order to simplify notation we let $\theta = t - 1$ and $R(\theta) = P(\theta + 1)$. For the case $t = 2$ we have $\theta = 1$. Performing this substitution leads the polynomial $P(t)$ of 2 to the polynomial $R(t-1)$ of 1. Taking into account the linear nature of the substitution $\theta = t - 1$, it can be seen that that derivation by θ and t coincide. Derivation leads us to the transformation of polynomial $R(\theta)$ to form where it has the necessary coefficient a_{p-1}. Then

$$R(\theta) = P(\theta+1) = \partial^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\Big(\partial^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big(\theta^{p-1}(\theta+1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big)(\theta+1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\Big) = \partial^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\Big(\frac{(p-1)!}{((p-1)/2)!}\theta^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(\theta+1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\Big).$$

In order to prove that $a_{p-1} \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$, it is now sufficient to s how that $R(\theta) = 0$ if $\theta = 1$ over F_p. We obtain

$$R(1) = \tfrac{(p-1)!}{(\frac{p-1}{2})!}\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}}(j+1)\cdots(j+\tfrac{p-1}{2}). \tag{7}$$

We now will manipulate with the expression $(\frac{p-1}{2} - j + 1)(\frac{p-1}{2} - j + 2)\cdots(\frac{p-1}{2} - j + \frac{p-1}{2})$. In order to illustrate the simplification we now consider the scenario when $p = 11$ and hence $\frac{p-1}{2} = 5$. The expression gets the form $(5 - j + 1)(5 - j + 2)\cdots(5 - j + 5) = (6 - j)(7 - j)\cdots(10 - j) \equiv \big((-5 - j)(-4 - j)\cdots(-1 - j)\big) \equiv (-1)^5\big((j+1)(j+2)\cdots(j+5)\big)(\mathrm{mod}\ 11)$.

Therefore, for a prime p, we can rewrite the expression as $(\frac{p-1}{2} - j + 1)(\frac{p-1}{2} - j + 2)\cdots(\frac{p-1}{2} - j + \frac{p-1}{2}) \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(j+1)\cdots(j+\frac{p-1}{2}) \equiv -1(j+1)\cdots(j+\frac{p-1}{2})(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$.

As a result, the symmetrical terms in (7) can be reduced yielding $a_{p-1} \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\, p)$. It should be noted that $(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = -1$ since $p = Mk + 3$ and $\frac{p-1}{2} = 2k + 1$. Consequently, we have $P(2) = R(1) = 0$ and hence $a_{p-1} \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$ as required. Thus, $\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big)^2 \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$, completing the proof of the of the theorem. □

Corollary 2.2. *The curve E_d is supersingular iff $E_{d^{-1}}$ is supersingular.*

Proof. Let us recall the proved fact in Theorem 2.1 that $N_{d[p]} \equiv -a_{2p-2} - a_{p-1} \equiv -\Big(\frac{d}{p}\Big) + \sum\limits_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big)^2 d^j (\mathrm{mod}\ p)$. Since $\big(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big)^2 d^j \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$ by condition, and the congruence $(\frac{d}{p}) \equiv (\frac{d^{-1}}{p})$ holds, then $N_{d[p]} \equiv N_{d^{-1}[p]}$. □

Now we estimate the number of points on the curve (3). Let $M_{d[p]}$ denote the number of solutions to equation (3) over the field F_p. It should be observed that for $x = 1$ and $x = -1$, the right side of (3) is equal to 0. Due to this the number $M_{d[p]}$ can therefore be bounded by

$$2 \le M_{d[p]} \le 2p - 2, \tag{8}$$

where if $a_{p-1} \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$ we have $N_{d[p]} \equiv -\big(\frac{d}{p}\big)(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$. The number of solutions is bounded by $N_{d[p]} \le 2p - 2$ because if $x = 1$ and $x = -1$ we only have one value of y, namely $y = 0$. For different values of x, we will have no more than two solutions for y because the equation (3) is quadratic relative to y. Thus, the only possible number is $M_{d[p]} \equiv p - \big(\frac{d}{p}\big)(\mathrm{mod}\ p)$.

Corollary 2.3. *If $p \equiv 3(\mathrm{mod}\, 4)$, is prime then there exists some T such that $T \equiv \sum\limits_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}}\big)^2 d^j \le 2\sqrt{q}$ and $N_{d[p]} = p - 1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) + T$.*

Proof. Due to equality (5) and the bounds (8) as well as according to generalized Hasse-Weil theorem $|N_{d[p]} - (p + 1) - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right)| \leq 2g\sqrt{p}$, where g is genus of curve, we obtain exact number $N_{d[p]}$. As we showed, $g = 1$. From Theorem 2.1 as well as from Corollary 2.2 we get, that $\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \left(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}}\right)^2 d^j \equiv -N_{d[p]} - (p+1) - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right)$ so there exists $T \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $T < 2\sqrt{p}$ and $N_{d[p]} = p - 1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) + T$. □

Example 2.1. *If $p = 13$, $d = 2$ gives $N_{2[13]} = 8$ and $p = 13$, $d^{-1} = 7$ gives that the number of points of E_7 is $N_{7[13]} = 20$, which is in contradiction to that suggested by Bessalov and Thsigankova [2]. Moreover, if $p \equiv 7 (\mathrm{mod}\ 8)$, then the order of torsion subgroup of curve is $N_2 = N_{2^{-1}} = p - 3$, which is clearly different to $p + 1$ as suggested by [2].*

For instance $p = 31$, then $N_{2[31]} = N_{2^{-1}[31]} = 28 = 31 - 3$, which is clearly not equal to $p + 1$. If $p = 7, d = 2^{-1} \equiv (4 \bmod 7)$ then the curve $E_{2^{-1}}$ has four points, namely $(0, 1); (0, 6); (1, 0); (6, 0)$, and the in case $p = 7$ with $d = 2 (\mathrm{mod}\ 7)$, the curve $E_{2^{-1}}$ also has four points: $(0, 1); (0, 6); (1, 0); (6, 0)$, demonstrating the order in this scenario is $p - 3$.

The following theorem shows that the total number of affine points upon the Edwards curves E_d and $E_{d^{-1}}$ are equal under certain assumptions. This theorem additionally provides us with a formula for enumerating the number of affine points upon the birationally isomorphic Montgomery curve N_M.

Theorem 2.3. *Let d satisfy the condition of supersingularity (1). If $n \equiv 1 (\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$ and p is prime, then*

$$\overline{N}_{d[p^n]} = p^n + 1,$$

and the order of curve is equal to

$$N_{d[p^n]} = p^n - 1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right).$$

If $n \equiv 0 (\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$ and p is prime, then the order of curve

$$N_{d[p^n]} = p^n - 3 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}},$$

and the order of projective curve is equal to

$$\overline{N}_{d[p^n]} = p^n + 1 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}}.$$

Proof. We consider the extension of the base field F_p to F_{p^n} in order to determine the number of the points on the curve $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2$. Let $P(x)$ denotes a polynomial with degree $m > 2$ whose coefficients are from $\mathbb{F}_p$. To make the proof, we take into account that it is known [12] that the number of solutions to $y^2 = P(x)$ over $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ will have the form $p^n + 1 - \omega_1^n - ... - \omega_{m-1}^n$ where $\omega_1, ..., \omega_{m-1} \in \mathbb{C}$, $|\omega_i| = p^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

In case of our supersingular curve, if $n \equiv 1 (\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$ the number of points on projective curve over $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ is determined by the expression $p^n + 1 - \omega_1^n - \omega_2^n$, where $\omega_i^n \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\omega_1 = -\omega_2$, $|\omega_i| = \sqrt{p}$ that's why $\omega_1 = i\sqrt{p}$, $\omega_2 = -i\sqrt{p}$ with $i \in \{1, 2\}$. In the general case, it is known [12, 15, 6] that $|\omega_i| = p^{\frac{1}{2}}$. The order of the projective curve is therefore $p^n + 1$.

If $p \equiv 7 (\mathrm{mod}\ 8)$, then it is known from a result of Skuratovskii [10] that E_d has in its projective closure of the curve singular points which are not affine and therefore

$$N_{d[p]} = p^n - 3.$$

If $p \equiv 3 (\mathrm{mod}\ 8)$, then there are no singular points, hence

$$\overline{N}_{d[p]} = N_{d[p]} = p^n + 1.$$

Consequently the number of points on the Edwards curve depends on $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right)$ and is equal to $N_{d[p]} = p^n - 3$ if $p \equiv 7 (\bmod\ 8)$ and $N_{d[p]} = p^n + 1$ if $p \equiv 3 (\mathrm{mod}\ 8)$ where $n \equiv 1 (\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$. We note that this is because the transformation of (3) in E_d depends upon the denominator $(dx^2 - 1)$.

If $n \equiv 1(\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$ then, with respect to the sum of root of of the characteristic equation for the Frobenius endomorphism $\omega_1^n + \omega_2^n$, which in this case have the same signs, we obtain that the number of points in the group of points of the curve is $p^n + 1 - \omega_1^n - \omega_2^n$ [19].

For $n \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$ we always have, that every $d \in F_p$ is a quadratic residue in F_{p^n}. Consequently, because of $(\frac{d}{p}) = 1$ four singular points appear on the curve. Thus, the number of affine points is less by 4, i.e. $N_{d[p^n]} = p^n - 1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}} = p^n - 3 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}}$. In more details $\omega_1,\ \omega_2$ are eigen values of the Frobenius operator F endomorphism on etale cohomology over the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$, where F acts of $H^i(X)$. The number of points, in general case, are determined by Lefshitz formula:

$$\#X\left(\mathrm{F}_{p^n}\right) = \sum (-1)^i tr(F^n \left| H^i(X)\right.)$$

where $\#X\left(\mathrm{F}_{p^n}\right)$ is a number of points in the manifold X over $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$, F^n is composition of Frobenius operator. In our case, E_d is considered as the manifold X over $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$.

Lemma 2.2. *There exists birational isomorphism between E_d and E_M, which is determined by correspondent mappings $x = \frac{1+u}{1-u}$ and $y = \frac{2u}{v}$.*

Proof. To verify this statement in supersingular case we suppose that the curve

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2$$

contains $p - 1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right)$ points (x, y), with coordinates over prime field F_p. Consider the transformation of the curve $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2$ into the following form $y^2(dx^2 - 1) = x^2 - 1$. Make the substitutions $x = \frac{1+u}{1-u}$ and $y = \frac{2u}{v}$. We will call the special points of this transformations the point in which these transformations or inverse transformations are not determined. As a result the equation of curve the equation of the curve takes the form

$$\frac{4u^2}{v^2} \cdot \frac{(d-1)u^2 + 2(d+1)u + (d-1)}{(1-u)^2} = \frac{4u}{(1-u)^2}.$$

Multiply the equation of the curve by

$$\frac{v^2(1-u)^2}{4u}.$$

As a result of the reduction, we obtain the equation

$$v^2 = (d-1)u^3 + 2(d+1)u^2 + (d-1)u.$$

We analyze what new solutions appeared in the resulting equation in comparing with $y^2(dx^2 - 1) = x^2 - 1$.

First, there is an additional solution $(u, v) = (0, 0)$. Second, if d is a quadratic residue by modulo p, then the solutions appear

$$(u_1, v_1) = \left(\frac{-(d+1) - 2\sqrt{d}}{d-1},\ 0\right), \quad (u_2, v_2) = \left(\frac{-(d+1) + 2\sqrt{d}}{d-1},\ 0\right).$$

If $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = -1$ then as it was shown above the order of E_d is equal to $p + 1$. Therefore, in case $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = -1$ order of E_d appears one additional solution of from $(u, 0)$ more exact it is point with coordinates $(0,\ 0)$ also two points $((-1; 0), (1; 0))$ of E_d have not images on E_M in result of action of birational map on E_M. Thus, in this case, number of affine points on E_M is equal to $p + 1 - 2 + 1 = p$. The table of correspondence between points is the following.

If $x = -1$ then equality $x = \frac{1+u}{1-u}$ transforms to form $-1 + u = 1 + u$, or $-1 = 1$ that is impossible for $p > 2$. therefore point $(-1, 0)$ have not an image on E_M.

Consider the case $x = 1$. As a result of the substitutions $x = (1 + u)/(1 - u), y = 2u/v$ we get the pair (x, y) corresponding to the pair (u, v) for which $v^2 = (d-1)u^3 + 2(d+1)u^2 + (d-1)u$.

If it occurs that $y = 0$, then the preimage having coordinates $u = 0$ and v is not equal to 0 is suitable for the birational map $y = \frac{2u}{v}$ which implies that $u = 0$ and $v \neq 0$. But pair (u, v) of such form do not satisfies the equation of obtained in result of mapping equation of Montgomery curve $v^2 = (d-1)\,u^3 + 2\,(d+1)\,u^2 + (d-1)u$. Therefore

Special points of E_M	Special points of E_d
$(0,0)$	-
$(\frac{-(d+1)-2\sqrt{d}}{d-1}, 0)$	-
$(\frac{-(d+1)+2\sqrt{d}}{d-1}, 0)$	-
$(1, -2\sqrt{d})$	-
$(1, 2\sqrt{d})$	-
-	$(-1, 0)$
-	$(1, 0)$

Table 1: Special points of birational maping

the corresponding point (u, v) will not be a solution to the equation $v^2 = (d-1)u^3 + 2(d+1)u^2 + (d-1)u$, since there will be an element on the left side, different from 0, and on the right will be 0. That is a contradiction as required, therefore $(x, y) = (1, 0)$ is the special point having not image on E_M.

If $y = 0$ then in equality $y = \frac{2u}{v}$ appear zeros in numerator and denominator and transformation is not correct.

The points $(\frac{-(d+1)-2\sqrt{d}}{d-1}, 0)$, $(\frac{-(d+1)+2\sqrt{d}}{d-1}, 0)$, $(1, -2\sqrt{d})$, $(1, 2\sqrt{d})$ exist on E_M only when $(\frac{d}{p}) = 1$. These points are elements of group which can be presented on Riemann sphere over F_q. The points $(1, -2\sqrt{d})$, $(1, 2\sqrt{d})$ have not images on E_d because of in denominator of transformations $x = \frac{1+u}{1-u}$ appears zero. By the same reason points $(\frac{-(d+1)-2\sqrt{d}}{d-1}, 0)$, $(\frac{-(d+1)+2\sqrt{d}}{d-1}, 0)$ have not an images on E_d.

If $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = 1$ then as it was shown above the order of E_d is equal to $p-3$. Therefore order of E_M is equal to p because of 5 additional solutions of equation of E_M appears but 2 points $((-1; 0), (1; 0))$ of E_d have not images on E_M. These are 5 additional points appointed in tableau above. Also it exists one infinitely distant point on an Montgomery curve. Thus, the order of E_M is equal $p+1$ in this case as supersingular curve has. □

It should be noted that the supersingular curve E_d is birationally equivalent to the supersingular elliptic curve which may be presented in Montgomery form $v^2 = (d-1)u^3 + 2(d+1)u^2 + (d-1)u$. As well as exceptional points [1] for the birational equivalence $(u, v) \mapsto (2u/v, (u-1)/(u+1)) = (x, y)$ are in one to one correspondence to the affine point of order 2 on E_d and to the points in projective closure of E_d. Since the formula for number of affine points on E_M can be applied to counting $N_{d[p]}$. In such way we apply this result [12, 7], to the case $y^2 = P(x)$, where $degP(x) = m$, $m = 3$. The order $N_{M[p^n]}$ of the curve E_M over F_{p^k} can be evaluated due to Stepanov [12, 15]. The research tells us that the order is $\overline{N}_{M[p^n]} = p^n + 1 - \omega_1^n - \omega_2^n$, where $\omega_i^n \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\omega_1^n = -\omega_2^n$, $|\omega_i| = \sqrt{p}$ with $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Therefore, we conclude when $n \equiv 1 (\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$, we know the order of Montgomery curve is precisely $N_{M[p^n]} = p^n + 1$. This result leads us to the conclusion that the number of solutions of $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2$ as well as $v^2 = (d-1)u^3 + 2(d+1)u^2 + (d-1)u$ over the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ are determined by the expression $p^n + 1 - \omega_1^n - \omega_2^n$ if $n \equiv 1 (\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$. □

Example 2.2. *The elliptic curve presented in the form of Montgomery $E_M : v^2 = u^3 + 6u^2 + u$, is birationally equivalent [1] to the curve $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + 2x^2y^2$ over the field F_{p^k}.*

Corollary 2.4. *If $d = 2$, $n \equiv 1 (\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$ and $p \equiv 3 (\mathrm{mod}\ 8)$, then the order of curve E_d and order of the projective curve are the following:*

$$N_{d[p^n]} = p^n + 1,\ \overline{N}_{d[p^n]} = p^n + 1.$$

If $d = 2$, $n \equiv 1 (\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$ and $p \equiv 7 (\mathrm{mod}\ 8)$, then the number of points of projective curve is

$$\overline{N}_{d[p^n]} = p^n + 1,$$

and the number of points on affine curve E_d is also

$$N_{d[p^n]} = p^n - 3.$$

In case $d = 2$, $n \equiv 0 (\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$, $p \equiv 3 (\mathrm{mod}\ 4)$, the general formula of the curves order is

$$N_{d[p^n]} = p^n - 3 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}}.$$

The general formula for $n \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$ and $d = 2$ for the number of points on projective curve for the supersingular case is

$$\overline{N}_{d[p^n]} = p^n + 1 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}}.$$

Proof. We denote by $N_{M[p^n]}$ the order of the curve E_M over F_{p^n}. The order $N_{M[p^n]}$ of E_M over F_{p^n} can be evaluated [6] as $N_{M[p^n]} = p^n + 1 - \omega_1^n - \omega_2^n$, where $\omega_i^n \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\omega_1^n = -\omega_2^n$, $|\omega_i| = \sqrt{p}$ with $i \in \{1, 2\}$. For the finite algebraic extension of degree n, we will consider $p^n - \omega_1^n - \omega_2^n = p^n$ if $n \equiv 1(\mathrm{mod}\ 2)$. Therefore, for $n \equiv 1(\mathrm{mod}2)$, the order of the Montgomery curve is precisely given by $N_{M[p^n]} = p^n + 1$. Here's one infinitely remote point as a neutral element of the group of points of the curve.

Considering now an elliptic curve, we have $\omega_1 = \bar{\omega}_2$ by [5], which leads to $\omega_1 + \omega_2 = 0$. For $n = 1$, it is clear that $N_M = p$. When n is odd, we have $\omega_1^n + \omega_2^n = 0$ and therefore $N_{M,n} = p^n + 1$. Because n is even by initial assumption, we shall show that $N_{M[p^n]} = p^n + 1 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}}$ holds as required. □

Note that for $n = 2$ we can express the number as $\overline{N}_{d[p^2]} = p^2 + 1 + 2p = (p + 1)^2$ with respect to Lagrange theorem have to be divisible on $\bar{N}_{d[p]}$. Because a group of $E_d(F_{p^2})$ over square extension of F_p contains the group $E_d(\mathrm{F}_p)$ as a proper subgroup. In fact, according to Theorem 1 the order $E_d(\mathrm{F}_p)$ is $p + 1$ therefore divisibility of order $E_d(\mathrm{F}_{p^2})$ holds because in our case $p = 7$ thus $\overline{N}_{E_d} = 8^2$ and $p + 1 = 8 = N_{d[7]}$ [16].

The following two examples exemplify Corollary 2.4.

Example 2.3. *If $p \equiv 3(\mathrm{mod}\ 8)$ and $n = 2k$ then we have when $d = 2$, $n = 2$, $p = 3$ that the number of affine points equals to*

$$N_{2[3]} = p^n - 3 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}} = 3^2 - 3 - 2 \cdot (-3) = 12,$$

and the number of projective points is equal to

$$\overline{N}_{2[3]} = p^n + 1 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}} = 3^2 + 1 - 2 \cdot (-3) = 16.$$

Example 2.4. *If $p \equiv 7(\mathrm{mod}\ 8)$ and $n = 2k$ then we have when $d = 2$, $n = 2$, $p = 7$ that the number of affine points equals to*

$$N_{2[7]} = p^n - 3 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}} = 7^2 - 3 - 2 \cdot (-7) = 60,$$

and the number of projective points is equal to

$$\overline{N}_{2[7]} = p^n + 1 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}} = 7^2 + 1 - 2 \cdot (-7) = 64.$$

Proposition 2.1. *The group of points of the supersingular curve E_d contains $p - 1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right)$ affine points and the affine singular points whose number is $2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) + 2$.*

Proof. The singular points were discovered in [10] and hence if the curve is free of singular points then the group order is $p + 1$. □

Example 2.5. *The number of curve points over finite field when $d = 2$ and $p = 31$ is equal to $N_{2[31]} = N_{2^{-1}[31]} = p - 3 = 28$.*

Theorem 2.4. *The order of Edwards curve over F_p is congruent to*

$$\overline{N}_{d[p]} \equiv \left(p - 1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) + (-1)^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \left(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}}\right)^2 d^j\right) \equiv \left((-1)^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \left(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}}\right)^2 d^j - 1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right)\right)(\mathrm{mod}\ p).$$

The true value of $\overline{N}_{d[p]}$ lies in $[4; 2p]$ and is even.

Proof. This result follows from the number of solutions of the equation $y^2 = (dx^2-1)(x^2-1)$ over F_p which equals to

$$\sum_{x=0}^{p-1}\left(\frac{(x^2-1)(dx^2-1)}{p})+1\right) \equiv \sum_{x=0}^{p-1}(\frac{(x^2-1)(dx^2-1)}{p})) + p \equiv$$
$$\equiv (\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(x^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(dx^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}})\,(\mathrm{mod} p) \equiv$$
$$\equiv ((-1)^{\frac{p+1}{2}}\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 d^j - (\frac{d}{p}))\,(\mathrm{mod} p)\,.$$

The quantity of solutions for $x^2+y^2 = 1+dx^2y^2$ differs from the quantity of $y^2 = (dx^2-1)(x^2-1)$ by $(\frac{d}{p})+1$ due to new solutions in the from $(\sqrt{d}, 0),\ (-\sqrt{d},\ 0)$. So this quantity is such

$$\sum_{x=0}^{p-1}\left(\frac{(x^2-1)(dx^2-1)}{p})+1\right) - \left((\frac{d}{p})+1\right) \equiv$$
$$\sum_{x=0}^{p-1}(\frac{(x^2-1)(dx^2-1)}{p})) + p - \left((\frac{d}{p})-1\right) \equiv$$
$$\equiv (\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(x^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(dx^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} - (\frac{d}{p})+1)\,(\mathrm{mod} p) \equiv$$
$$\equiv (-1)^{\frac{p+1}{2}}\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 d^j - (2(\frac{d}{p})+1)\,(\mathrm{mod} p)\,.$$

According to Lemma 1 the last sum $(\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(x^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(dx^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}})\,(\mathrm{mod} p)$ is congruent to $-a_{p-1}-a_{2p-2}(mod\ p)$, where a_i are the coefficients from presentation

$$(x^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(dx^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = a_0 + a_1x + ... + a_{2p-2}x^{2p-2}.$$

Last presentation was obtained due to transformation $(x^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(dx^2-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = (\sum_{x=0}^{p-1}C^k_{\frac{p-1}{2}}x^{2k}(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}-k})(\sum_{x=0}^{p-1}C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}}d^jx^{2j}(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j})$. Therefore a_{2p-2} is equal to $d^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv (\frac{d}{p})(\mathrm{mod} p)$ and $a_{p-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2 d^j(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$.

According to Newton's binomial formula a_{p-1} equal to the coefficient at x^{p-1} in the product of two brackets and when substituting it d instead of 2 is such

$$(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}}d^j(C^j_{\frac{p-1}{2}})^2,$$

that is, it has the form of the polynomial with inverse order of coefficients.

Indeed, we have equality

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} d^j (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j})(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}-(\frac{p-1}{2}-j)} \cdot (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j})^2 (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j} =$$

$$= (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} d^j C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j} \cdot C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j} = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} d^j (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j})^2.$$

In form of a sum it is the following $\sum\limits_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} 2^j (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j})(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}-(\frac{p-1}{2}-j)} \cdot 2^j (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j})^2 (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j} =$

$= (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \sum\limits_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} 2^j C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j} \cdot C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j} = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \sum\limits_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} 2^j (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j})^2.$

If

$$a_{p-1} = \sum\nolimits_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j})^2 d^j (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 0 (\mathrm{mod} p),$$

then as it is was shown by the author in [10] this curve is supersingular and the number of solutions of the $y^2 = (dx^2-1)(x^2-1)$ over F_p equals to $p - 1 - 2\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) + \left(1 + (\frac{d}{p})\right) = p - \left(\frac{d}{p}\right)$ and differs from the quantity of solutions of $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2$ by $(\frac{d}{p}) + 1$ due to new solutions of $y^2 = (dx^2-1)(x^2-1)$. Thus, in general case if $a_{p-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j})^2 d^j (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \neq 0$ we have

$$N_{E_d} = (p - (\tfrac{d}{p}) - ((\tfrac{d}{p}) + 1) - (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{\frac{p-1}{2}-j} C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j})^2 d^j) \equiv (p - 1 - (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j})^2 d^j - 2(\tfrac{d}{p})) \equiv$$

$$((-1)^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j})^2 d^j - 1 - 2(\tfrac{d}{p})) \, (\mathrm{mod} p) \, .$$

The exact order is not less than 4 because cofactor of this curve is 4. To determine the order is uniquely enough to take into account that p and $2p$ have different parity. Taking into account that the order is even we chose a term p or $2p$, for the sum which define the order. □

Let us analyze the complexity of calculating the value of

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} (C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j})^2 d^j.$$

Binomial coefficients of the form $C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{l}$ we calculate recursively having $C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{l}$ we get $C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{l+1}$. Such a transformation can be done by one multiplication of one division. But division can be avoided by applying the Legendre formula to count the number of occurrences of all prime factors from 2 to $(p-1) : 2$. In both cases, the complexity of calculating all the coefficients from the sum (3) is equal to $O(\frac{p-1}{2} \log_2^2 p)$. Squaring the calculated binomial coefficient $C_{\frac{p-1}{2}}^{j}$ also does not exceed $O\left(\log_2^2 p\right)$.

Calculate all values of$d^j \mod p$ optimally applying recursive multiplication d^{j-1} on d for this we use the Karatsuba multiplication method requiring $O(log_2^{\log_2 3} p)$, than apply the Barrett method of modular multiplication. Therefore, the complexity of computing the entire tuple of degrees d^j, $j = 1, ..., n$ is $O(\frac{p-1}{2} log_2^{\log_2 3} p)$. Totally we obtain $O(\frac{p-1}{2} \log_2^2 p)$.

Example 2.6. *Number of curve points for $d = 2$ and $p = 31$ equals $N_{2[p]} = N_{2^{-1}[p]} = p - 3 = 28$.*

Theorem 2.5. *If $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = 1$, then the orders of the curves E_d and $E_{d^{-1}}$, satisfies to the following relation*

$$|E_d| = \ |E_{d^{-1}}| \, .$$

If $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = -1$*, then* E_d *and* $E_{d^{-1}}$ *are pair of twisted curves i.e. orders of curves* E_d *and* $E_{d^{-1}}$ *satisfies to the following relation of duality*

$$|E_d| + |E_{d^{-1}}| = 2p + 2.$$

Proof. Let the curve be defined by $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2(modp)$, then we can express y^2 in such way:

$$y^2 \equiv \frac{x^2 - 1}{dx^2 - 1} \, (mod\, p.) \tag{9}$$

For $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + d^{-1}x^2y^2(modp)$ we could obtain that

$$y^2 \equiv \frac{x^2 - 1}{d^{-1}x^2 - 1} \, (mod\, p) \tag{10}$$

If $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = 1$, then for the fixed x_0 a quantity of y over F_p can be calculated by the formula $(\frac{\frac{x^2-1}{d^{-1}x^2-1}}{p}) + 1$ for x such that $d^{-1}x^2 + 1 \equiv 0(\mathrm{mod}p)$. For solution $(x_0,\, y_0)$ to (2), we have the equality $y_0^2 \equiv \frac{x_0^2-1}{dx_0^2-1} \, (mod\, p)$ and we express $y_0^2 \equiv \frac{1-\frac{1}{x_0^2}}{1-\frac{1}{dx_0^2}} \, d^{\,-1} \equiv \frac{\left(\frac{1}{x_0}\right)^2-1}{\frac{1}{d}\left(\frac{1}{x_0}\right)^2-1} \, d^{\,-1} \equiv \frac{\left(\frac{1}{x_0}\right)^2-1}{d^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{x_0}\right)^2-1} \, d^{-1}$. Observe that

$$y^2 = \frac{x^2 - 1}{d^{-1}x^2 - 1} = \frac{1 - x^2}{1 - d^{-1}x^2} = \frac{(\frac{1}{x^2} - 1)x^2}{((\frac{d}{x^2}) - 1)d^{-1}x^2} = \frac{(\frac{1}{x^2} - 1)}{((\frac{d}{x^2}) - 1)}d. \tag{11}$$

Thus, if (x_0, y_0) is solution of (2), then $\left(\frac{1}{x_0},\, \frac{y_0}{\sqrt{d}}\right)$ is a solution to (10) because last transformations determines that $\frac{y_0^2}{d} \equiv \frac{d^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{x_0}\right)^2-1}{\left(\frac{1}{x_0}\right)^2-1} modp$. Therefore last transformations $(x_0,\, y_0) \;\to (\frac{1}{x_0},\, \frac{y_0}{\sqrt{d}}) = (x,\, y)$ determines isomorphism and bijection.

In case $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = -1$, then every $x \in \mathrm{F}_p$ is such that $dx^2 - 1 \neq 0$ and $d^{-1}x^2 - 1 \neq 0$. If $x_0 \neq 0$, then x_0 generate 2 solutions of (2) iff x_0^{-1} gives 0 solutions of (10) because of (11) yields the following relation

$$(\frac{\frac{x^2-1}{d^{-1}x^2-1}}{p}) = (\frac{\frac{x^{-2}-1}{dx^{-2}-1}}{p})(\frac{d}{p}) = -(\frac{\frac{x^{-2}-1}{dx^{-2}-1}}{p}). \tag{12}$$

Analogous reasons give us that x_0 give exactly one solution of (2) iff x_0^{-1} gives 1 solutions of (10). Consider the set $x \in \{1, 2, ..., p-1\}$ we obtain that the total amount of solutions of form $(x_0^{-1},\, y_0)$ that represent point of (2) and pairs of form $(x_0,\, y_0)$ that represent point of curve (10) is $2p - 2$. Also we have two solutions of (2) of form $(0, 1)$ and $(0, -1)$ and two solutions of (10) that has form $(0, 1)$ and $(0, -1)$.

The proof is fully completed. □

Example 2.7. *The number of points on* E_d *for* $d = 2$ *and* $d^{-1} = 2$ *with* $p = 31$ *is equal to* $N_{2[31]} = N_{E_2^{-1}[31]} = p - 3 = 28$.

Example 2.8. *The number of points of* E_d *over* F_p *for* $p = 13$ *and* $d = 2$ *is given by* $N_{2[13]} = 8$. *In the case when* $p = 13$ *and* $d^{-1} = 7$ *we have that the number of points of* E_7 *is* $N_{7[13]} = 20$. *Therefore, we have that the sum of orders for these curve is equal to* $28 = 2 \cdot 13 + 2$ *which confirms our theorem. The set of points over* F_{13} *when* $d = 2$ *are precisely* $\{(0, 1); (0, 12); (1, 0); (4, 4); (4, 9); (9, 4); (9, 9); (12, 0)\}$*, while for* $d = 7$*, we have the set*
$\{(0, 1); (0, 12); (1, 0); (2, 4); (2, 9); (4, 2); (4, 11); (5, 6); (5, 7);$
$(6, 5); (6, 8); (7, 5); (7, 8); (8, 6); (8, 7); (9, 2); (9, 11); (11, 4); (11, 9); (12, 0)\}$.

Example 2.9. *If* $p = 7$ *and* $d = 2^{-1} \equiv 4(\mathrm{mod}\ 7)$*, then we have* $(\frac{d}{p}) = 1$ *and the curve* $E_{2^{-1}}$ *has four points which are* $(0, 1); (0, 6); (1, 0); (6, 0)$*, and the in case* $p = 7$ *for* $d = 2(\mathrm{mod}\ 7)$*, the curve* $E_{2^{-1}}$ *also has four points which are* $(0, 1); (0, 6); (1, 0); (6, 0)$.

Definition 2.1. *We call the embedding degree a minimal power k of a finite field extension such that the group of points of the curve can be embedded in the multiplicative group of $\mathbb{F}_{p^k}$.*

Let us obtain conditions of embedding [14] for the group of supersingular curves $E_d[\mathbb{F}_p]$ of order p in the multiplicative group of field $\mathbb{F}_{p^k}$ whose embedding degree is $k = 12$ [14]. We now utilise the Zsigmondy theorem which implies that a suitable characteristic of field $\mathbb{F}_p$ is an arbitrary prime p which do not divide 12 and satisfies the condition $q \,|\mathrm{P}_{12}(p)$, where $\mathrm{P}_{12}(x)$ is the cyclotomic polynomial. This p will satisfy the necessary conditions $(x^n - 1) \not| \, p$ for an arbitrary $n = 1, ..., 11$.

Proposition 2.2. *The degree of embedding for the group of a supersingular curve E_d is equal to 2.*

The order of the group of a supersingular curve E_d is equal to $p^k + 1$. It should be observed that $p^k + 1$ divides $p^{2k} - 1$, but $p^k + 1$ does not divide expressions of the form $p^{2l} - 1$ with $l < k$. This division does not work for smaller values of l due to the decomposition of the expression $p^{2k} - 1 = (p^k - 1)(p^k + 1)$. Therefore, we can use the definition to conclude that the degree of immersion must be 2, confirming the proposition.

Consider E_2 over F_{p^2}, for instance we assume $p = 3$. We define F_9 as $\mathrm{F}_3(\alpha)$, where α is a root of $x^2 + 1 = 0$ over F_9. Therefore elements of F_9 have form: $a + b\alpha$, where $a,\ b \in \mathrm{F}_3$. So we assume that $x \in \{\pm(\alpha + 1),\ \pm(\alpha - 1),\ \pm\alpha\}$ and check its belonging to E_2. For instance if $x = \pm(\alpha + 1)$ then $x^2 = \alpha^2 + 2\alpha + 1 = 2\alpha = -\alpha$. Also in this case $y^2 = \frac{2\alpha-1}{\alpha-1} = \frac{(2\alpha-1)(\alpha+1)}{(\alpha-1)(\alpha+1)} = \frac{(2\alpha-1)(\alpha+1)}{(\alpha-1)(\alpha+1)} = \frac{\alpha}{-2} = \alpha$. Therefore the correspondent second coordinate is $y = \pm(\alpha - 1)$. The similar computations lead us to full the following list of curves points.

x	±1	0	$\pm(\alpha+1)$	$\pm(\alpha-1)$
y	0	±1	$\pm(\alpha-1)$	$\pm(\alpha+1)$

Table 2: Points of Edwards curve over square extension.

The total amount is 12 affine points that confirms Corollary 2.4 and Theorem 2.3 because of $p^n - 3 - 2(-p)^{\frac{n}{2}} = 3^2 - 3 - 2(-3) = 12$.

3 Conclusion

The new method for order curve counting was founded for Edwards and elliptic curves. The criterion for supersingularity was additionally obtained.

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